



Review article

A Review of Human Trafficking Issues in Malaysia and Nigeria

Sani S. Ibrahim^{1,2}, Adlina Ab. Halim^{1*} and Zatul Himmah Adnan¹

¹*Department of Government and Civilisation Studies, Faculty of Human Ecology, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia*

²*Department of Political Science, Bauchi State University, P.M.B.65, Bauchi, Nigeria*

ABSTRACT

Human trafficking is a growing transnational crime, threatening national security, causing economic losses and damaging the domestic human rights reputation of countries. It is the reflection of the problem facing the global societies today, including Malaysia and Nigeria. The countries were chosen as the study because both Malaysia and Nigeria ratified United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children. The countries subsequently enacted national policies in compliance with UN Trafficking Protocol. The aim of this article is to: (1) review the current studies of human trafficking in both countries by looking at nature, pattern, and some distinct characteristic of human trafficking in both countries; (2) outline the gap in the literature and make some suggestion for future research on human trafficking in both countries. The review of the literature is carried out based on relevant existing literature and past studies on their commitment (Malaysia and Nigeria) in responding to the UN Trafficking Protocols. The review reveals the challenges faced by both countries in combating human trafficking, are not of policy formulation but effective implementation of Anti-Trafficking

in Persons and Anti-Smuggling of Migrants Act and Trafficking in Persons Prohibition Law Enforcement and Administration Act (TPPLEAA) in Malaysia and Nigeria respectively. Moreover, the review shows that Protection and Assistance of Trafficked Persons, Prevention of Human Trafficking, Prosecution of Traffickers and Promotion of Partnership (4Ps) in combating human trafficking have not been adequately

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 10 September 2018

Accepted: 18 June 2019

Published: 23 July 2019

E-mail addresses:

sanisaniibrahim76@gmail.com/sanisaniibrahim@yahoo.com (Sani S. Ibrahim)

adlina@upm.edu.my (Adlina Ab. Halim)

zatul@upm.edu.my (Zatul Himmah Adnan)

* Corresponding author

examined. The study suggests the ways to address human trafficking issues in both countries.

Keywords: Human trafficking, Malaysia, Nigeria, policy response

INTRODUCTION

Human trafficking is a growing transnational crime, threatening national security, causing economic losses and damaging the domestic human rights reputation of countries and it posed a great threat to the security of human persons. It is a reflection of the problem facing the global societies today, including Malaysia and Nigeria. This paper focuses on reviewing human trafficking issues in these two countries. The countries were chosen because both Malaysia and Nigeria ratified United Nation Trafficking Protocols, and subsequently enacted Anti-Trafficking in Persons and Anti-Smuggling of Migrants Act and TPPLEAA in compliance with the international instrument respectively. In an effort to effectively tackle the problems associated with human trafficking, both countries established Council for Anti-Trafficking in Persons and Anti-Smuggling of Migrants (MAPO) and National Agency for Prohibition of Traffic in Persons and Other Related Matters (NAPTIP) in Malaysia and Nigeria respectively. Both MAPO and NAPTIP are saddled with the responsibility of coordinating the implementation of the national plans of actions against human trafficking, controlling the menace of trafficking, protection, and assistance to trafficked persons in their respective countries. The purpose of this article is

to present a review of the current studies of human trafficking in both countries, outline gap in the literature and make some suggestions for future research on human trafficking in both countries. The review starts with an overview of global human trafficking in general.

An Overview of Global Human Trafficking

Many definitions of human trafficking exist (Aronowitz, 2001). The most prominent, comes from the United Nations 2000 trafficking protocol. Article 3(a) of the United Nations' (2000) Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children states, "Trafficking in persons" shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs. While smuggling of migrants shall mean the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a

national or permanent resident (Aronowitz, 2001; United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime [UNODC], 2009). The key differences between human trafficking and migrant smuggling is depicted in Table 1.

Human Trafficking is considered as one most prolific area of international criminal activities and is of significant concern to many scholars who dedicated effort to study the phenomenon (Bruch, 2004; Cho, 2015; Duru & Ogbonnaya, 2012; Gallagher & Holmes, 2008; Hanley et al., 2006; Monzini, 2005; Raymond, 2002; Risley, 2015; Zhao, 2003; Zhang, 2008; Zhang & Chin, 2008). Many authors in search for the reasons for the rapid growth of the phenomenon identifies economic, social inequalities, political conflict, sex tourism, rapid growth of multi-billion dollar sex industries and legalization of prostitution as factors responsible for the rise and rapid increase of human trafficking worldwide (Farley, 2009; Huda, 2006; Kin et al., 2009; Monzini, 2005; Roth, 2010). The

number of persons reported to be trafficked worldwide has become a subject of different estimation, and divergent numbers have been presented from the literature reviewed. The number was estimated between 700,000 to 27 million (Arlacci, 2000; Bales, 2004; Doezenia, 2002; Flowers, 2001; Gallagher & Holmes, 2008; Gozdzia & Collett, 2005; Holmes, 2009; International Labour Organization [ILO], 2008; Marie et al., 2009; Monzini, 2005; Roby, 2003; UNODC, 2014; U.S. Department of State [USDOS], 2002; Wagley, 2006). The study conducted by Belser (2005) showed that the global figures representing human trafficking in commercial sexual and economic exploitation (see Table 2). The inconsistencies in figures showed the complexity of human trafficking and exposed the methodological deficiencies in the literature, in which Governments, NGOs, and scholars were citing opposing numbers that were unverified.

Table 1
Key differences between human trafficking and migrant smuggling

Differences	Human trafficking	Smuggling of migrants
Action	Recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of a person by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits	Procurement of illegal entry of a person into a country of which the person is not a national or permanent resident
Trans nationality	Not required	Required
Purposes	Exploitation which includes: a) Prostitution and other forms of sexual exploitation b) Forced labor and services c) Slavery and similar practices d) Involuntary servitude e) Removal of organs	For financial or other material benefit

Source: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2009)

Table 2
Total trafficking-related forced labor

	Forced commercial sexual exploitation	Forced economic exploitation	Mixed or undetermined	Total
Industrialized Economics	63%	17%	29%	270,000
Transition Economics	45%	4%	50%	200,000
Asia and the Pacific	54%	14%	32%	1,360,000
Latin America & Caribbean	12%	87%	1%	250,000
Sub-Sahara Africa	6%	84%	7%	130,000
MENA	10%	89%	1%	230,000
World	1,060,000	780,000	600,000	2,440,000

Source: Belser, (2005)

Human Trafficking is considered as a lucrative business, it is the third most profitable organized crime business after arms and drug trafficking (Belser, 2005; Cho & Vadlamannati, 2012; Zimmerman et al., 2011; Zimmerman, 2003). Scholars presented different amount generated from the commission of the crime worldwide, for instance 5-7 billion USD, 3-10 billion USD, 7-10 billion USD and 13-20 billion USD (Bales, 2004; USDOS, 2004) but Belser (2005) estimated 31 billion dollars generated from the crime, from the 2.4

million persons reported to be trafficked annually, on the average of 13,000 US dollar per trafficked victim (see Table 3). The different of amount presented has revealed the lack of consensus among scholars on how much the crime generated annually. This has implication in terms of policy issues which will likely undermine the global effort in curbing human trafficking. As the actual number of trafficked persons globally has been a subject of debate among scholars, even though there are global efforts to address the menace (see Table 4).

Table 3
Annual profits for all trafficked forced laborers

Regions	Profits in forced commercial sexual exploitation (US\$ Billion)	Total profits in economic exploitation (US \$ Billion)	Global profits (US \$ Billion)
Industrialized Economics	13,277	2,235	15,513
Transition Economics	3,283	139	3,422
Asia and the Pacific	9,536	168	9,705
Latin America & Caribbean	572	776	1,348
Sub-Sahara Africa	118	40	158
MENA	1,033	475	1,508
World	27,820	3,834	31,654

Source: Belser, (2005)

Table 4
Global law enforcement data

Year	Regions	Prosecutions	Conviction	Victims identified
2006/2012	Africa	1,749	954	48,423
2006/2012	East Asia and Pacific	7,498	4,954	24,087
2006/2012	Europe	19,912	12,485	54,269
2006/2012	Middle East	1,691	908	8,881
2006/2012	South and Central Asia	7,563	5,136	24,514
2006/2012	Western Hemisphere	4,802	1,903	39,785
TOTAL		43,215	26,340	200,959

Source: US Department of State (2012) *Trafficking in Persons Report*, Washington D.C.
Government Print Office (Combined 2006-2012 and modified)

Conceptual Framework

The diagram in Figure 1 below shows the conceptual framework of the study. The framework defines the scope of the study by focusing on human trafficking, policies and implementation issues in Malaysia and Nigeria. It also provides the platform to review what is currently known on the issues as reflected in literature and the gap that exist for which research is needed.

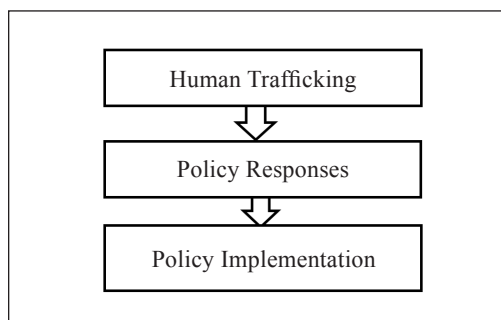


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The secondary data was used to collect data and it provides an important source of information in the study. Corbetta (2003) highlighted the merit of using

secondary method over other method of data collection: (1) "It is a non-reactive method where information get from the document is not subject to possible distortion and interpolation, as the result of interaction between the interviewer and the interviewees; (2) document is cost effective because it has already been produced; and (3) it helps the researcher to study the past. In this regard, the assembling of data was through government documents, journals, published books, seminar presentations, unpublished materials, and relevant materials were sourced from Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) library and others were retrieved from the website. The adoption of this method provided an important source of information in the study because "It has the advantage of being the language, words and thought of participants" (Creswell, 2003: 223-224). And it provides an insight into organisations responsible for the implementation of human trafficking policies in both Malaysia and Nigeria that cannot be observed or noted in another way (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). However, the method suffers the problems of being

incomplete, inaccurate and non-accessibility but such problems were solved by adopting Creswell (2003) guidelines for obtaining documents in the study. These involved identifying the relevant materials, seek permission to use the identified documents and examined its merits in terms of accuracy and completeness.

Since, this study has to do with human trafficking and policies responses, the use of contextual or document data analysis is in line with Ritchie and Lewis (2003) who stated that document analysis was chiefly beneficial in such studies where history of events or experience and implementation had importance, and where relevant documents and written communication were essential to the investigation. Therefore, constant comparison in segregating and identifying the key issues in addressing the research objectives was employed on the documents obtained from the study areas. Evidences from the documents in forms of quotations and figures were presented to support the findings and conclusion of the study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Based on the review of the literature two major themes were identified, the themes highlight the nature, manifestation, policies responses and obstacles to effective prevention of human trafficking and protection of trafficked persons in both Malaysia and Nigeria. The following discusses the first theme.

Human Trafficking in Malaysia and Policy Response

Some scholars highlighted Malaysia as a source, transit, and destination of trafficking in persons (Sheila, 2013; USDOS, 2014; Wan Ismail, 2014). The country is reported as a destination of human trafficking from Burma, Cambodia, Indonesia, Philippines, Vietnam, Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan, Uzbekistan and Nigeria for forced labour, domestic and sexual exploitation (Sheila, 2013; USDOS, 2011). The country dependent on foreign labour has made it an attractive destination for human trafficking. Studies show that Malaysia hosted about 4.1 million migrants of which 2 million are considered as illegal migrants in search of greener pasture (Sadiq, 2005; Santhiago, 2005; Wan Ismail et al., 2014). Evidence from the government reports in 2013 shows that 96% of the trafficked victim are foreigners, of which 32.3% Indonesia, 14% Philippine, 10.7% Sri Lanka, 7.4% Myanmar, 7.1% Vietnam, 5.6% China, 5.4% India and 4.7% Thailand (Ministry of Home Affairs, 2012). Overall women constitute 63%, Men 25.3% and Children 11.7% (Ministry of Home Affairs, 2012).

Literature has revealed various aspects of trafficking in persons such as trafficking for sexual exploitation, domestic house help, and sale of babies (Kaur, 2011; Saat, 2009; Human Rights Commission of Malaysia [SUHAKAM], 2004; UNODC, 2012; USDOS, 2010; Wan Ismail, 2014; Wan Ismail et al., 2014; Wong & Saat, 2002). Other studies revealed that human trafficking in Malaysia was related to the

increase in demand and supply of women for entertainment industries (Hamid, 2011; Saat, 2009; Wan Ismail, 2014). Findings from the studies conducted by Wong and Saat (2002), Saat (2009) and UNODC (2012) showed that sex industries in Malaysia provided lucrative profit to the criminal syndicates and a good market for trafficked persons from the Philippines (See Table 4). Available data from Ministry of Home Affairs (2012) showed that sexual exploitation was ranked the highest in the country with 57.9 % and followed by forced labour with 26.0 %. Other literature shows the trafficking for the sale of babies is taking place in the country. Sheila (2013) revealed that a baby was sold between “RM10,000 (US\$3,160) and RM20,000 (US\$6,320) to childless couples or to different syndicates for various reasons in the black-market”. In addition, Chiew and Kumar (2009) reported similar incidence where police rescued 10 babies’ ages between 3 months to 3 years as well arrested criminal syndicates that specialized in selling babies in Klang. Moreover, Edward (2009) noted the modus operandi of these criminal rings involved by hiring and paying women from Indonesia, Philippines, and Vietnam to sleep with men and bear babies for sale. It appears from the literature discussed that human trafficking is an organized crime business carried out and perpetuated by the organized criminal network. The findings highlight the nature, structure, and operations of the networks at the phases of human trafficking.

Past studies have revealed the direct link between corruption and human trafficking and close collaboration of the corrupt government officials, travel agent and the criminal syndicate for document falsification, visa forgery, alteration of names, ages, substitution of photographs and data pages of passports (Asis, 2004; Bernama, 2009; Hosen, 2005; Santhiago, 2005; Sadiq, 2005; Silvey, 2007; Sheila, 2013; Uddin, 2014; UNODC, 2011; Wong & Saat, 2002). For instance, in December 2003 the criminal network was busted and among were the official from Malaysian Airlines and Airport (Santhiago, 2005). In a similar context, Asis (2004) reported that protection from arrest could be purchased and the criminal rings always went free, because of what Sadiq (2005) called official corruption. Human trafficking will continue to flourish and as long as the corrupt official will continue to aid the criminal network by their act of omission or commission (Saat 2009; Sadiq, 2005; Uddin, 2014). The implementation of human trafficking policy is entrusted to the government officials, as the key actors in the implementation process but such trust has been abused by the act of some corruption official. This constitutes an obstacle to the realization of the policy objectives, because corruption among the implementing official continue to undermine the efforts to protect and assist the trafficked persons, reduced their access to shelter services, and violate trafficked persons rights.

Table 5
Estimated monthly income of entertainment companies in the Federal Territory of Labuan

Company	Number of Girls	Average number of booking	Price per booking night	Turnover booking (MR)
A	40	400	250	100,000
B	30	300	250	75,000
C	30	300	250	75,000
D	38	380	250	95,000
E	30	300	250	75,000
F	30	300	250	75,000
G	30	300	250	75,000
H	20	200	250	50,000
I	70	700	250	175,000
TOTAL	318			795,000

Source: Saat (2006)

Some states in the country are more prone to the human trafficking and Sabah is identified as the main entry point of human trafficking into Malaysia from Philippine (Saat, 2009; Wong & Saat, 2002). Evidence from the police authority shows that out of the 3,123 Filipinos arrested 3, 117 were from Sabah (Ministry of Home Affairs, 2012). Their findings reveal that deception was used to trafficked Filipino women by organised criminal syndicates into tourist and entertainment industries in Malaysia. As the result of debt bondage, the trafficked victims are forced into prostitution. They are taken to other cities in West Malaysia and later trafficked to Japan, Singapore, Thailand, Hong Kong, Taiwan and Europe (USDOS, 2012; Wong & Saat, 2002).

There is increasing literature examining Malaysian role in combating human trafficking in terms of policy making, implementation, bilateral and multilateral collaboration (Azizan, 2006; Hamid & Mokhtar, 2013; Sheila, 2013; Saad &

Salman, 2014; Wan Ismail et al., 2014; Wahab, 2009). In the study conducted by Hamid and Mokhtar (2013) they examined Malaysian anti-trafficking enactments and other relevant provisions in the Malaysian Laws that addressed relevant cases of human trafficking for instance: Immigration Act, 1959/63 [Act 155], Malaysian Maritime Enforcement Agency Act, 2004 [Act 633], Evidence Act 1950 [Act 56], Custom Act 1967 [Act 235], Child Act 2001 [Act 611] and Penal Code [Act 574] (Hamid & Mokhtar, 2013). The study was a mere description of penalties and the provision of such laws rather than a translation of such policies or laws into action. Wahab (2009), Saad and Salman (2014) and Sheila (2013) examined the institutional role of MAPO in coordinating the implementation of Anti-Trafficking in Persons and Anti-Smuggling of Migrants Act, formulating policies and adopting measures to ensure the prevention of trafficking and smuggling of persons. Report from Ministry of Home Affairs

(2012) showed the anti-trafficking efforts made between the years 2008 to 2012 (See Table 6) Malaysian efforts in combating human trafficking was not limited within her border but extended to other countries particularly members of Association of South East Asia Nations (ASEAN) who are also affected with this crime by signing bilateral and multilateral agreement. For example, in July 2009 Malaysia with other members of ASEAN held a conference and discussed the way out of the spreading nature of trafficking in persons in the region (David et al., 2011). Although the government has enacted and formulated policies to curb human trafficking in the country, as well as to protect and assist the trafficked persons. However, translating policy into action in Malaysia poses a great challenge as it requires the government delivery system to respond effectively and work productively with all relevant agencies and stakeholders.

A review of United States Department of State Reports on trafficking in person from 2002 to 2005 consecutively-placed Malaysia on tier 2 ranking, whose government did not fully complied with for the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking but was making significant effort to do so.

The country was demoted to tier 2 Watchlist in 2006, 2008, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2015 (USDOS, 2015). Malaysia was placed on the worst position (tier 3) whose government did not comply and was not making efforts to do so in the year 2001, 2007, 2009 and 2014 (USDOS, 2014; Wan Ismail, 2014). The ranking of countries in human trafficking reports has been criticised for the lack of sufficient information to justify the ranking, promotion and downgrading of countries (Chuang, 2012; Gallagher, 2011; Horning et al., 2013; Wooditch, 2011). This explained the position of Corker (2015) and Menendez (2015) who criticised the report and the ranking for being more of political than actual fact on the ground. The placement of countries on tier ranking has to be on countries' commitment to the UN Trafficking Protocol not in the unilateral position of United States. The following discusses the second theme.

Human Trafficking Scope and Responses Efforts in Nigeria

Scholars classified Nigeria as a key player in international trafficking, it accounts for 13 percent of the global record. The country is a source, transit and destination of human trafficking and a leading African country

Table 6
Cases of trafficking in persons 2008-2012

No.	Cases	Year					Total
		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	
1	Total cases	17	151	131	117	174	591
2	Total no. of arrested	20	217	195	159	206	797
3	Total no. of victims (Interim Protection Order)	85	956	870	447	1005	3363
4	Total no. of victims (Protection Order)	29	206	471	220	309	1235

Source: Ministry of Home Affairs (2012)

in terms of human trafficking (Akor, 2011; Agbu, 2003; Duru & Ogbonnaya, 2012; ILO, 2012; USDOS, 2013). The rapid increase of human trafficking of women and children in Nigeria is associated with poverty, unemployment, ignorance and greed (Adesina, 2014; Ajagun, 2012; Akor, 2011; Adepoju, 2005; Onuoha, 2014; Onuoha, 2011; Omorodion, 2009; Tade, 2014; United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund [UNICEF], 2006). Human trafficking is considered to be the third most profitable organized crime business after financial fraud and drug trafficking in Nigeria. The trafficking of women and children in Nigeria are of two dimensions, internally and externally. According to Akor (2011) and Tade (2014), internal trafficking is mostly for domestic purposes (House-help) and externally for prostitution and other sexual exploitation. In the research conducted by UNICEF (2006) and Ogbemudia (2010) noted an increase in internal trafficking of children in Nigeria mostly from rural areas to

urban centers. However, evidence from the Government Report (2015) showed that external trafficking constituted the highest number of cases reported (See Table 7).

Studies conducted by Agbu (2003), Okonofua, et al. 2004, Imudia (2009), Akor (2011), Okojie, et al. (2011), Onyejekwe (2013), Okoli and Francis, 2013, and Imudia and Adesina (2014) indicated that human trafficking in Nigeria was influenced and sustained by poverty, ignorance, greed, breakdown of family structure, bad governance and civil strife that had displaced many from their homes. Evidence from the findings of UNICEF (2005) and Reef (2005) fingered ignorance as the major contributory factor of child trafficking under the disguise of the almajiri educational system, which was commonly known as Tsangaya system in Northern Nigerian. The system affords the children the chance to study and recite the Holy Qur'an in a traditional way. Moreover, UNICEF (2005) reported that almost 10 million of Nigeria children were estimated to be in this Tsangaya

Table 7
Reported case of human trafficking and other related matters

Cases Reported	2015	214
External trafficking for sexual and labor exploitation	175	192
Internal Trafficking for sexual and labor exploitation	31	38
Child Abuse	82	12
Child Labor	127	134
Kidnapping from Guardianship	32	69
Forced Marriages	5	8
Rape/ Sexual Abuse	26	21
Nigerians Deported as illegal migrant	1	2
Others	91	61
Total	570	603

Sources: Nigerian's Government (2015)

system. These children are vulnerable to human trafficking and many of them were reported to have been trafficked for forced agricultural work, street begging, domestic house and child prostitution (Reef, 2005). However, Oloruntimehin (2002) found that the effect of Structural Adjustment Policy (SAP) featuring high inflation, devaluation of currency (Naira), low industrial capacity performance, massive retrenchment and the increase rate of unemployment caused the rapid growth of the illegal business activities, such activities include: human trafficking, drugs trafficking and prostitution.

Previous studies revealed that the major destinations for trafficked persons, especially from Southern part of Nigeria are Italy, France, Netherlands, Germany, Spain, Scotland, Turkey, Denmark, Finland, France, Sweden, Switzerland, Norway, Ireland, Slovakia, Czech Republic, Greece, Russia, Malaysia, and Belgium (Curtol et al., 2004; USDOS, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013). While, Middle East is the destination for Nigerian trafficked persons, particularly from the Northern part of the country to Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates for the purpose of begging and domestic house help (USDOS, 2009).

In its efforts to curb the menace of human trafficking, Nigeria domesticated the UN Trafficking Protocol, enacted Trafficking in Person Prohibition Law Enforcement and Administration Act (TPPLEAA) in 2003. Bisi and Anne (2006) and Shatsari (2012) studied TPPLEAA, the Act according to the scholar integrated the relevant provisions of both criminal and panel codes of Southern

and Northern Nigeria respectively and produced a comprehensive national legislation throughout the country. Section 1 of TPPLEAA established National Agency for Prohibition of Traffic in Persons and Other Related Matters (NAPTIP) to effectively address the problems associated with trafficking in persons in the country. Shatsari (2012) highlighted 22 penal provisions in the TPPLEAA prescribing different punishments ranging from twelve months to life imprisonment. Section 11-32 of TPPLEAA defined the offense of exportation and importation of underage person into Nigeria for the purpose of prostitution to life imprisonment. Procurement of any persons for prostitution, pornography and use in arm conflict is punishable with fourteen years imprisonment (TPPLEAA, 2003). Since the inception of the TPPLEAA, the government recorded the arrest of human traffickers (See Table 8).

Ebirim (2002) and Shatsari (2012) studied and examined the functions of NAPTIP as contained in the Trafficking Act, 2003. According to them, the Agency is empowered to coordinate and enforce all laws on trafficking in person, adopting all measures to increase the effectiveness of eradication and prevention of human trafficking, strengthening and improving international cooperation in the suppression of Trafficking in Persons. The Agency (NAPTIP) is also empowered to supervise, control and coordinate the rehabilitation and reintegration of trafficked persons. Their studies failed to identify how the agency coordinated another relevant stakeholder

Table 8
Suspected traffickers arrested

Suspected Traffickers	Male	Female	Total
External trafficking for sexual and labor exploitation	71	51	122
Internal Trafficking for sexual and labor exploitation	12	3	15
Child Abuse	24	34	58
Child Labor	40	69	109
Kidnapping from Guardianship	21	11	32
Forced Marriages	1	2	3
Rape/ Sexual Abuse	16	9	25
Others	34	34	68
Total	219	213	432

Source: Nigerian's Government (2015)

in realizing the policy objectives and part of the limitation of the study was not an empirical research but relied on a secondary source which might suffer the problem of the authenticity of the used documents. However, the scope of Shatsari (2012) research was limited to only one out of the six geopolitical zone of the country, therefore, his study might not provide a broader understanding of agency's role in the anti-trafficking efforts. None of the studies focused on NAPTIP rehabilitation and reintegration programmes.

Unfortunately, victims of human trafficking are not adequately protected and assisted because the Act, (TPPLEAA) focuses on criminalizing human trafficking and prosecution of traffickers. Hence, the government saw the need for a policy that would specifically handle victims' protection and assistance, thereby in 2008 introduced for the first time a National Policy on Protection and Assistance to Trafficked Persons in Nigeria (NPPATPN). Such policy (NPPATPN) is aimed to Rehabilitate, Repatriate and Reintegrate victims of human

trafficking to become useful and functional members of their respective societies. Despite the introduction of NPPATPN the victims remain unprotected and unassisted and yet the country is categorized in tier 2 ranking as a country whose government does not fully comply with the minimum standards for the elimination of human trafficking and protection of trafficked persons (USDOS, 2015). For instance, it was reported that over 300,000 Nigerians have been trafficked out of the country since the obnoxious trade gained ground in the country (ILO, 2012). Similarly, Italian authority estimated that 10,000 to 15,000 Nigerian prostitutes work in Italy and 90 percent of them are trafficked persons (Iduhon, 2010; USDOS, 2010). International Labour Organization (2012) reported that 40 percent of the street hawkers were trafficked victims and over 1,000 were forced into prostitution in Mali and Burkina Faso. In Malaysia, Nigerian women are forced into prostitution by traffickers and also work as drug mules to their traffickers (USDOS, 2013, 2014). The problems facing Nigeria

like that of Malaysia is not that of policy formulation but effective implementation of the policy is the major challenges. This explains why a lot of trafficked persons are not adequately rehabilitated and reintegrated into their respective communities, which leads to further victimisation.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The situation of human trafficking in both countries shows that research on human trafficking in these countries has increased significantly in the recent time that improves our understanding of the phenomenon. The review of the literature has revealed that human trafficking is a problem in both countries. Therefore, there is a need to go beyond revealing that human trafficking is problematic but to pay more attention on conducting researches on the ways to address the problem. There is a need for both countries (Malaysia and Nigeria) to learn from the experiences of developed nations, particularly United States and Britain in controlling the menace of human trafficking, through effective coordination and collaboration among the all stakeholders. Also among the source, transit, and destination countries in the area of information sharing and victim rehabilitation (USDOS, 2010). In view of this, coordination, collaboration, and partnership should be central to the both Malaysia and Nigeria in addressing human trafficking. The nature of the crime both in its domestic and transnational character demands that all stakeholders must work

together to prevent the crime, protect the trafficked persons and put an end to human trafficking.

Both Malaysia and Nigeria are destination countries of human trafficking, particularly from ASEAN and ECOWAS countries respectively (ILO, 2012; Ministry of Home Affairs, 2012). This reflects the need for international cooperation. Hence, the countries should learn from Australia to engage and promote the regional initiative, particularly with ASEAN and ECOWAS countries. Such engagement would help to promote an excellent regional bilateral relation in combating human trafficking. Moreover, the countries may consider cross-border collaboration as practice by the United Kingdom in countries of origin (Home Office and Scottish Executive, 2009). To expand their international partnership cooperation, the countries should consider the possibility of working with more international agencies such as IOM, ILO, UNODC, UNICEF, and UNHCR. This provides an opportunity for Malaysia and Nigeria to learn from the practical and global experience of these agencies with regard to counter human trafficking issues.

Moreover, for effective prevention and protection, the involvement of local community and council is critical. Hence, Malaysia and Nigeria should encourage the participation of local communities in combating human trafficking. Such practice has assisted the United Kingdom to prevent and protect the trafficked person in the local communities (Rossiter & Benfield, 2009). The local community should be mobilized

to form Victims of Human Trafficking Rescue Community Action Group. The group should consist of Ward Head, Village Heads, Religious leaders, School Principals, and students. This can assist in protecting and assisting the trafficked person, and also reports to the nearest authority concerned any suspicious activities relating to human trafficking issues.

Malaysia and Nigeria could learn from Belgium and United Kingdom that encourage, incorporated and, trained airline staff regarding proper documentation in order to prevent human trafficking before potential victims enter the countries (U.S. Department of State, 2011; UK Home Office, 2011; Wan Ismail, 2014). Thus, both governments (Malaysia and Nigeria) should formed Public Information Dissemination Networks. This network should consist of hoteliers, club owners, Road Transports Union, Airlines companies, Travel agencies, and Tour operators to promote public awareness, by informing their clients on strategies to protect and assist the trafficked persons. Moreover, make a policy that all hotel and club owners, Private Transport workers, traveling agencies and Airline companies insert in their tickets, flight magazine, pamphlets, and internet units information regarding prevention and protection of trafficked persons.

The study recommends further research on the efforts of travel agencies, tour operators and airlines in the prevention and protection of trafficked persons. This is because, these transport agents are critical in understanding the national and transnational movement of potentially trafficked persons

from source places to the destination areas. It appears that this has not been adequately investigated. Therefore, further study needs to be conducted in this area. In addition, the review of the recent literature revealed that little is known about the implementation of human trafficking policy. Therefore, in the effort to promote evidence-based research, both Malaysia and Nigeria may consider the option of using existing institution as demonstrated by Australia and United Kingdom (Home Office and Scottish Executive, 2007; U.S. Department of State, 2011). Research institutions with specialists in the field of human trafficking will be imperative to carry out relevant studies and provide a critical analysis on anti-human trafficking interventions with the aim of stressing the good practices and identifying the obstacles in the countries' efforts to prevent human trafficking, prosecute human traffickers and protect trafficked persons. Moreover, it has been reported that Malaysia is a destination country of human trafficking from Nigeria (USDOS, 2012) but there are no dedicated efforts to conduct empirical research between the two countries in that aspect. The need for the cross-continental study between these countries is relevant.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors would like to thank the reviewers and proof-readers for their valuable comments and recommendations to improve this article. Special thank goes to Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETfund) for funding the first author to complete this research.

REFERENCES

- Adepoju, A. (2005). Review of research and data on human trafficking in sub-Saharan Africa. *International Migration*, 6(43), 45-58.
- Adesina, O. S. (2014). Modern-day slavery: Poverty and child trafficking in Nigeria. *African Identities*, 3(6), 1-15.
- Agbu, O. (2003). Corruption and human trafficking: The Nigerian case. *West Africa Review*, 4(1), 1-13.
- Ajagun, S. O. (2012). Implications of human trafficking for human rights: The case of Nigeria. *Global Journal of Human Social Science, Arts and Humanities*, 12(11), 29-35.
- Akor, L. (2011). Trafficking of women in Nigeria: Causes, consequences and the way forward. *Corvinus Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 2(2), 89-110.
- Arlacci, H. (2000). *Human trafficking: A new form of modern slavery*. New York, USA: Columbia University Press.
- Aronowitz, A. A. (2001). Smuggling and trafficking in human beings: The phenomenon, the markets that drive it and the organizations that promote it. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*, 9(2), 163-195.
- Asis, M. M. B. (2004). Borders, globalization and irregular migration in Southeast Asia. In A. Ananta, & E., N. Arifin (Eds.), *International Migration in Southeast Asia: Singapore* (pp.199-227). Pasir Panjang, Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- Asoata, O. E. (2011). *Socio-economic implication of human trafficking in an endemic community: A case study of Uromi Town, Edo state, Nigeria* (Master's thesis), University of Lagos, Nigeria.
- Azizan, H. S. (2006). Addressing the crime. In A. Ahmed (Eds). *Stop Trafficking in Persons: A transborder crime in the region* (pp. 101-108). Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Tenaganita Sdn. Bhd.
- Bales, K. (2004). *Disposable people: New slavery in the global economy*. Los Angeles, USA: University of California Press.
- Belser, P. (2005). *The profits forced labour and human trafficking: Estimating the profits*. Retrieved July 5, 2017, from http://www.ilo.org/sapfl/Informationresources/ILOPublications/lang--en/docName--WCMS_081971/index.htm
- Bernama. (2016). Two immigration officers among 19 held for alleged involvement in passport forgery syndicate. Retrieved October 7, 2017, from <https://www.nst.com.my/>
- Bernama. (2009). Five Immigration officers nabbed for human trafficking. Retrieved October 7, 2017, from <http://www.nst.com/>
- Bisi, O. O., & Anne, I. (2006). Review of legislation and policies in Nigeria on human trafficking and forced labour. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(4), 16-25.
- Bruch, E. (2004). Models wanted: The search for an effective response to human trafficking. *Stanford Journal of International Law*, 40(6), 21-42.
- Chiew, S., & Kumar, M. (2009, December 23). Babies rescued: Five more saved from infant factory. *The Star*, pp.1-10.
- Cho, S. Y. (2015). Evaluating policies against human trafficking worldwide: An overview and review of the 3P index. *Journal of Human Trafficking*, 1(1), 86-99.
- Cho, S. Y., & Vadlamannati, K. C. (2012). Compliance with the anti-trafficking protocol. *European Journal of Political Economy*, 28(2), 249-265.
- Chuang, J. A. (2012). The United States as global sheriff: Using unilateral sanctions to combat human trafficking. *Michigan Journal of International Law*, 27, 437-494.
- Corbetta, P. (2003). *Social research: Theory, methods, and techniques*. London: Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Corker, B. (2015). *Senate hearing 2015 human trafficking report* [DVD]. Retrieved April 19, 2016, from <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8XAE7nGHXPK>
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. London: Thousand Oaks, CA Sage Publications.
- Curtol, F., Decarli, S., Di Nicola, A., & Savona, E. U. (2004). Victims of human trafficking in Italy: A judicial perspective. *International Review of Victimology*, 11(1), 111-141.
- David, F., Gallagher, A., Holmes, P., & Moskowitz, A. (2011). *Progress report on criminal Justice responses to trafficking in persons in the ASEAN region*. Jakarta, Indonesia: Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN).
- Doezema, J. (2002). Who gets to choose? Coercion, consent, and the UN Trafficking Protocol. *Gender & Development*, 10(1), 20-27.
- Duru, E., & Ogonnaya, U. (2012). Combating human trafficking in Nigeria: An evaluation of state policies and programmes. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(5), 161-164.
- Ebirim, I. (2002). Human trafficking: Economic implications. *New Nigerian*, 15, 13-16.
- Edward, C. (2009). Stakeholders' activities in anti-trafficking in persons movement. In T. Joseph & R. Robert (Eds.), *The evil side of globalization* (pp. 219-231). Sydney, Australia: United Nations University Press.
- Enaikelé, M. D., & Olutayo, A. O. (2011). Human trafficking in Nigeria: Implication for human immune deficiency virus and acquired immune deficiency syndrome (HIV/AIDS) pandemic. *International Journal of Sociology and Anthropology*, 3(11), 416-422.
- Farley, M. (2009). Theory versus reality: Commentary on four articles about trafficking for prostitution. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 32(4), 311-315.
- Flowers, D. G. (2001). Human trafficking and illegal migration. In C. Harold (Ed.), *Human security* (pp. 111-128). Hampshire, UK: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Gallagher, A. (2011). Improving the effectiveness of the international law of human trafficking: A vision for the future of the US trafficking in persons reports. *Human Rights Review*, 16 (12), 381-400.
- Gallagher, A., & Holmes, P. (2008). Developing an effective criminal justice response to trafficking: Lessons from the front line. *International Criminal Justice Review*, 18(3), 318-343.
- Gozdziak, E. M., & Collett, E. A. (2005). Research on human trafficking in North America: A review of literature. *International Migration*, 43(12), 99-128.
- Guth, A. P. (2010). Human trafficking in the Philippines: The need for an effective anti-corruption program. *Trends in Organized Crime*, 13(2-3), 147-166.
- Hamid, R. A. (2011, October 18). Sex slaves freed. *The Star*. Retrieved September 10, 2017, from <http://thestar.com.my/>
- Hamid, Z., & Mokhtar, K. A. (2013). Human trafficking: The International, Malaysian legal framework and Islamic perspective. *International Islamic University Malaysia Law Journal*, 21(2), 287-307.
- Hanley, J., Oxman-martinez, J., Lacroix, M., & Gal, S. (2006). The "deserving" undocumented? Government and community response to human trafficking as a labour phenomenon. *Labour, Capital and Society*, 39,(3), 79-103.
- Holmes, L., (2009). Human trafficking and corruption: Triple victimisation. In C. Friesendorf, (Ed.), *Strategies against human trafficking: The role of the security sector*. (pp.83-114). Geneva, Switzerland: National Defence Academy.

- Home Office and Scottish Executive. (2007). *UK action plan on tackling human trafficking*. Retrieved October 8, 2013, from http://www.ungift.org/doc/knowledgehub/resource-centre/Governments/UK_Action_Plan_to_Combat_Human_Trafficking_en.pdf
- Home Office and Scottish Executive. (2009). *Update to the UK Action Plan on tackling human trafficking*. Retrieved July 8, 2017, from http://www.ungift.org/doc/knowledgehub/resource-centre/Governments/Update_to_the_UK_Action_Plan_on_Tackling_Human_Trafficking_2009.pdf
- Hosen, M. N. (2005). Governance of Indonesian labour and migration to Malaysia: An overview. *Review of Indonesian and Malaysian Affairs*, 39(2), 31.
- Horning, A., Thomas, C., Henninger, A. M., & Marcus, A. (2013). The trafficking in persons report: A game of risk. *International Journal of Comparative and Applied Criminal Justice*, 38(3), 257-280.
- Huda, S. (2006). Sex trafficking in South Asia. *International Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics*. 94(3), 374-81.
- Human Rights Commission of Malaysia. (2004). *Trafficking in women and children*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Author.
- Iduhon, J. (2010). *Sex taboos and sexuality. A study of Benin culture and human trafficking trends in Benin city, Edo State*. (Master's thesis). Edo State University, Nigeria.
- International Labour Organisation, (2012) *Desk research to identify available statistical data on labour migration and human trafficking in Nigeria*. Abuja, Nigeria: University Press.
- International Labour Organisation. (2008). *Thailand: Harmonising the anti-traffickers*. Retrieved October 29, 2015, from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_099884.pdf
- Imudia, O. B. (2009). *Poverty, emigration and human trafficking: An opinion survey in Benin city, Edo State* (Master's thesis), University of Lagos, Nigeria.
- Kaur, M. (2011). The implications of the US anti-human trafficking strategy for national policies: The case of Malaysia. Retrieved November 21, 2017, from <http://www.rsis.edu.sg/nts/html-newsletter/alert/nts-alert-aug-1101.html>
- Kin, E., Minwoo, Y., Park, M., & Hue, W. (2009). Cross-border North Korea women trafficking and victimization between North Korean and China: An ethnography case study. *International Journal of Law, Crime, and Justice*, 6(3), 154-169.
- Lincoln, S. Y., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. London: Beverly Hill: SAGE Publications.
- Marie, S., Sanja, M., & Sharon, P. (2009). *Sex Trafficking: International context and response*. London, UK: Willan Publishing.
- Menendez, B. (2015). *Menendez calls for investigation of TIP report* [DVD]. Retrieved April 19, 2016, from <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zHBUjBE38s>.
- Ministry of Home Affairs. (2012). *Data on human trafficking in Malaysia*. Putrajaya, Malaysia: Ministry of Home Affairs.
- Monzini, P. (2005). *Sex trafficked, prostitution, crime and exploitation*. Nova Scotia, Canada: Fernwood Publishing.
- Nigeria's Government. (2015). *Report on trafficking in persons*. Lagos, Nigeria: Government Print and Publishers.
- Ogbemudia, J. O. (2010). *Human trafficking in Edo State: The psychological and health implication for trafficked persons* (Master's dissertation), University of Lagos, Nigeria.

- Ogbonnaya, A. O. (2012). *Socio-economic implication of human trafficking in an endemic community: A case study of Uromi Town, Edo state, Nigeria* (Master's dissertation), University of Lagos, Nigeria.
- Okoli, C., & Francis, O. (2013). Human trafficking and trajectories of neo-slavery: The Nigerian experience and a political economy outline. *International Journal of Liberal Arts and Social Sciences*, 2(2), 86-96.
- Okojie, E.E., Eghafona, K., & Osaghae, V. G. (2011). *Mapping of NGOs working in the field of human trafficking and gender-based Violence in Benin City and Lagos*. Benin City, Benin: MLX Press.
- Okonofua, F. E., Ogbomwan, S. M., Alutu, N., Kufre, O., & Eghosa, A. (2004). Knowledge, attitudes and experiences of sex trafficking by young women in Benin City, South-South Nigeria. *Social Science & Medicine*, 59(6), 151-173.
- Oloruntimehin, O. (2002). Cultural and economic impetus for trafficking in Nigeria. *Paper presented at the World Bank workshop on culture and development*. Abuja, Nigeria: University Press.
- Omorodion, F. I. (2009). Vulnerability of Nigerian secondary school to human sex trafficking in Nigeria. *African Journal of Reproductive Health*, 13(2), 33-48.
- Onuoha, B. (2011). The state human trafficking and human rights issues in Africa. *Contemporary Justice Review*, 14(5), 149-166.
- Onuoha, F. C. (2014). The evolving menace of baby factories and trafficking in Nigeria. *African Security Review*, 23(4), 405-411.
- Onyejekwe, C. J. (2005). Influences of global human trafficking issues on Nigeria: A gender perspective. *Journal of International Women's Studies*, 7(2), 141-151
- Raymond, J. (2002). The new UN trafficking protocol. *Women's Studies International Forums*, 25(2), 491-502.
- Raymond, J. Hughes. D., & Gomez, C. (2001). (2001). *Sex trafficking of women in United States: Links between international and domestic sex industries*. Washington, D. C.: Markham Publishing Company.
- Reef. M. S. (2005, September 26). Who can save Almajiri from ignorance? *The Punch*, p.17.
- Ritchie, J., & Lewis, J. (2003). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. London, UK: Sage.
- Risley, A. (2015). America will not tolerate slave traders: Counter-trafficking policies and US power. *Journal of Women, Politics & Policy*, 36(2), 213-238.
- Roby, J. L. (2003). Women and children in the global sex trade: Toward more effective policy. *International Social Work*, 48(2), 136-147.
- Rossiter, K., & Benfield, J. (2009). The role of local authorities in addressing human trafficking. *Commonwealth Journal of Local Governance*, (3), 127-139.
- Roth, M. P. (2010). *Organized crime*. London, UK: Prentice Hall.
- Saad, S., & Salman, A. (2014). Government policy and the challenge of eradicating human trafficking in Malaysia. *Malaysian Journal of Society and Space*, 6(6), 66-74.
- Saat, G. (2009). Human trafficking from the Philippines to Malaysia: Impact of urbanism. *South Asian Survey*, 16(1), 137-148.
- Sadiq, K. (2005). When states prefer non-citizens over citizens: Conflict over illegal immigration into Malaysia. *International Studies Quarterly*, 49(1), 101-122.
- Santhiago, A. (2005). Human smuggling, migration and human rights: A Malaysian perspective. *Paper presented at International Conference on Migration and Human rights protection of smuggled persons*. Geneva, Switzerland: Regional Centre for East Asia and the Pacific (RCEAP).

- Shatsari, R. A. (December). Human trafficking and law in Nigeria. *Paper presented at National Conference on Organized Crime*. Abuja, Nigeria: University Press.
- Sheila, D. M. (2013). Human trafficking in Malaysia: The trends and challenges. *Paper presented at Global Conference on Business, Economics and Social Sciences Kuala Lumpur*. Malaysia: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- Shelley, L. (2010). *Human trafficking: A global perspective*. New York, USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Silvey, R. (2007). Unequal borders: Indonesian transnational migrants at immigration control. *Geopolitics*, 12(2), 265-279.
- Tade, O. (2014). Recruitment and abuse of trafficked children in south-west Nigeria. *African Security Review*, 23(3), 264-282.
- Uddin, M. B. (2014). Human trafficking in South Asia : Issues of corruption and human security the concept of human trafficking. *International Journal of Social Work and Human Services Practice*, 2(1), 18-27.
- U.K. Home Office. (2011). *Human trafficking: The government's strategy*. Retrieved April 19, 2016, from <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/human-trafficking-strategy>
- United Nations. (2000). *Protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against transnational organised crime*. Retrieved November 19, 2017, from http://www.uncjin.org/Documents/Conventions/dcatoc/final_documents_2/convention_%20traff_eng.pdf
- United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund. (2005). *Situational assessments and analysis report on human trafficking in Nigeria*. Abuja, Nigeria: Author.
- United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund. (2006) *Situational assessments and analysis report on human trafficking in Nigeria*. Abuja, Nigeria: Author.
- United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund. (2005). *Innovative child protection intervention on the national response to cross-border and multi-national trafficking in persons*. Abuja, Nigeria: Author.
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2009). *Anti-human trafficking manual for criminal justice practitioners*. Retrieved April 16, 2018, from <http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/human-trafficking/2009/anti-human-trafficking-manual.html>
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2011). *The role of corruption in trafficking in persons*. Retrieved April 16, 2018, from http://www.unodc.org/documents/human-trafficking/2011/Issue_Paper_-_The_Role_of_Corruption_in_Trafficking_in_Persons.pdf
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2012). *Global report on trafficking in persons*. Retrieved April 16, 2018, from http://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glotip/Trafficking_in_Persons_2012_web.pdf
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2014). *Global report on trafficking in Persons*. Retrieved April 16, 2018, from http://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glotip/GLOTIP_2014_full_report.pdf
- U.S. Department of State. (2002). *Trafficking in persons report 2002*. Retrieved April 16, 2019, from <https://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2002/index.htm>
- U.S. Department of State. (2004). *Trafficking in persons report 2004*. Retrieved April 16, 2019, from <https://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2002/index.htm>

- U.S. Department of State. (2006). *Trafficking in persons reports 2006*. Retrieved April 16, 2018, from <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/66086.pdf>
- U.S. Department of State. (2009). *Trafficking in persons reports 2009*. Retrieved April 16, 2018, from <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/123357.pdf>
- U.S. Department of State. (2010). *Trafficking in persons reports 2010*. Retrieved April 16, 2018, from <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/142979.pdf>
- U.S. Department of State. (2011). *Trafficking in persons reports 2011*. Retrieved April 16, 2018, from <https://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2011/164225.htm>
- U.S. Department of State. (2012). *Trafficking in persons reports 2012*. Retrieved April 16, 2018, from <http://www.state.gov/g/tip/rls/tiprpt/2012/index.htm>
- U.S. Department of State. (2013). *Trafficking in persons report 2013*. Retrieved April 16, 2018, from <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/210737.pdf>
- U.S. Department of State. (2014). *Trafficking in persons reports 2014*. Retrieved April 16, 2018, from <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/226844.pdf>
- U.S. Department of State. (2015). *Trafficking in persons report 2015*. Retrieved April 16, 2018 from <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>
- Wahab, A. A. (2009). *Malaysian anti-trafficking initiatives and the emerging issues: An overview on refugee perspective*. Kedah, Malaysia: UUM Press.
- Wagley, J. (2006). *Transnational organized crime: Principal threats and US responses*. New York, USA: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Wan Ismail, W. N. I., Raja Ariffin, R. N., & Kee Cheok, C. (2014). Human trafficking in Malaysia: Bureaucratic challenges in policy implementation. *Administration & Society*, 49(2), 212-231.
- Wan Ismail, W. N. I. (2014). *Human trafficking policy implementation: A case study of Malaysia* (Doctoral thesis), Universiti Malaya, Malaysia.
- Wong, D., & Saat, G. (2002). Trafficking of Filipino women to Malaysia: Examining the experiences and perspectives of victims, governmental and NGO experts. *Crime, law and Social Change*, 52(5), 457.
- Wooditch, A. (2011). The efficacy of the trafficking in persons report: A review of the evidence. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 22(5), 471-493.
- Zhang, S. (2008). *Chinese human smuggling organizations: Families, social networks, and cultural imperatives*. California, USA: Stanford University Press.
- Zhang, S. X., & Chin, K. L. (2008). Snakeheads, mules, and protective umbrellas: A review of current research on Chinese organized crime. *Crime, Law and Social Change*, 50(3), 177-195.
- Zhao, G. M. (2003). Trafficking of women for marriage in China: Policy and practice. *Criminology and Criminal Justice*, 3(1), 83-102.
- Zimmerman, C., Hossain, M., & Watts, C. (2011). Human trafficking and health: A conceptual model to inform policy, intervention and research. *Social Science & Medicine* (1982), 73(2), 327-35.
- Zimmerman, C. (2003). *The health risks and consequences of trafficking in Women and adolescents. findings from a European study*. London: London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine.